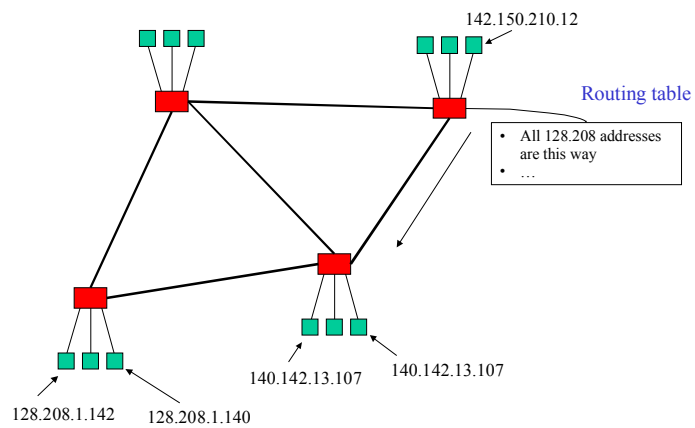


**CSE/EE 461: Introduction to Computer
Communications Networks
Winter 2009**

**Module 6
IP Addressing**

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Last Time: Addresses Imply Location



This Lecture

IP Addressing

- Allocation and discovery
 - DHCP
 - ARP
 - NAT
- Hierarchy (prefixes, class A, B, C, subnets)

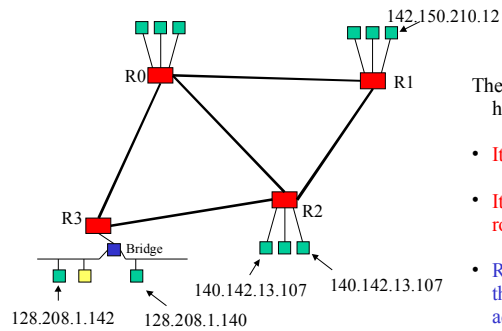
Application
Presentation
Session
Transport
Network
Data Link
Physical

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Address Allocation and Discovery



The yellow node boots. It has a MAC address.

- It needs an IP address.
- It needs to know to use router R3.
- R3 needs to discover the new host's MAC address.

DHCP is used.
ARP is used.

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Topic 1: Obtaining an IP address

- Old fashioned way: sysadmin configured each machine
 - E.g., a local file contained the IP address to use
 - Imagine deploying 50 new machines in one of the labs...
- Future fashioned way (IPv6): Stateless Autoconfiguration
 - Addresses are wide / plentiful
 - Form IPv6 address by concatenating “network’s address” (prefix) with your own MAC address
 - Learn “network address” portion from router
- Current (IPv4) way: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP)
 - Addresses are narrow (32-bits) / scarce
 - Have to hand them out carefully
 - Use a DHCP server that provides bootstrap info to hosts
 - Host’s IP address, gateway address, ...
 - An immediate problem: how does a host without an IP address communicate with the DHCP server?

The DHCP Problem

Host



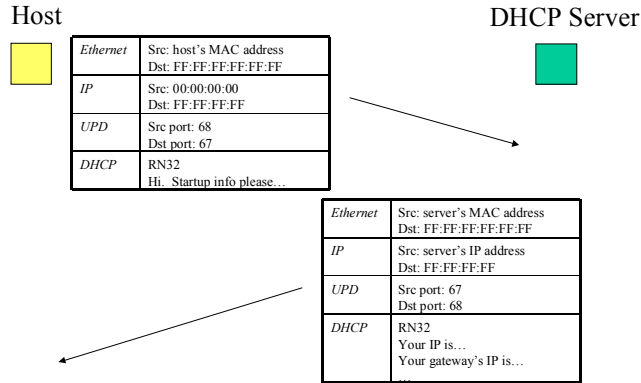
DHCP Server



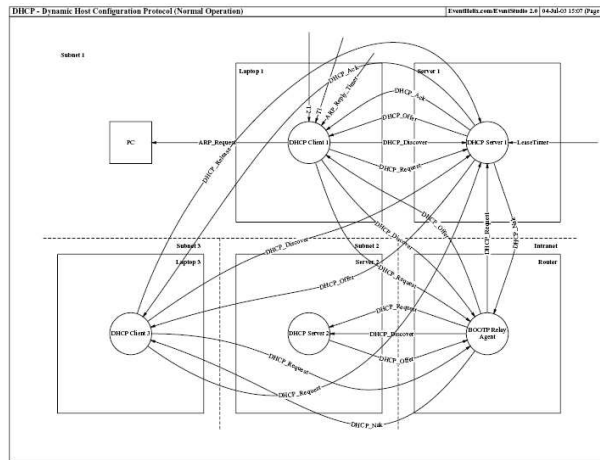
- The host doesn’t have an IP address
- The host doesn’t know the address of the DHCP server
- The host wants to contact the DHCP server
- We want to use IP packets to talk with the server
 - Why? Why not talk using link layer packets?

Solution: link and IP layer multicast

The DHCP Problem Solution



(As always, the actual protocol is richer than what is shown here.)



- Client is responsible for all retransmissions. (Why?)
- What dangers are there for losing IP addresses?

Topic 2: Discovering MAC's from IP's

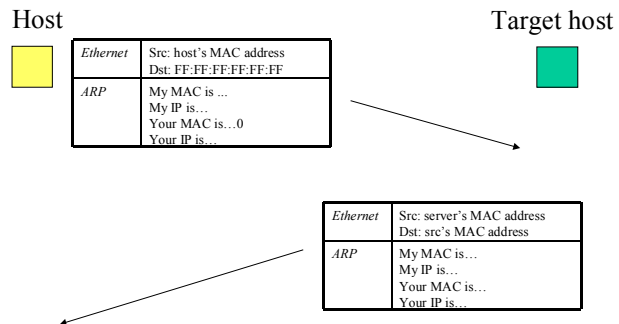
- Host has an IP (e.g., for the gateway). It needs a MAC address to send a frame to it.
- Solution: Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)
- Exploits the physical multicast of Ethernet

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The IP->MAC Problem Solution



(As always, the actual protocol is richer than what is shown here.)

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Topic 3: Network Address Translation (NAT)

- Turns out that there aren't all that many 32-bit strings (i.e., IP addresses)
 - The world needs more...
 - An individual network needs more...
 - You need more...
 - Your ISP will give you only one (using DHCP), but you want to connect five machines to the Internet
- NAT exploits *non-routable addresses* to let you build your own private network "behind the NAT box"
 - Non-routable addresses are, well, never routed
 - do not have to be globally unique (just locally unique)
- The NAT box substitutes its own IP address for outgoing packets, and the local address of the actual destination for incoming packets

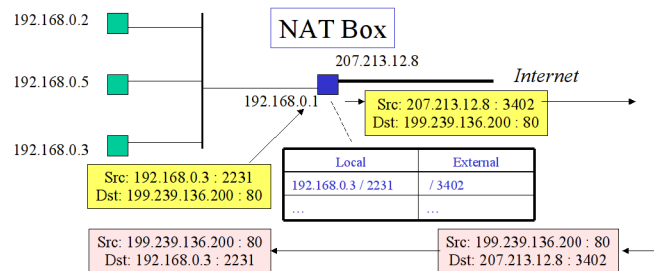
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NAT Overview

- Recall that IP addresses are 32-bits (e.g., 192.168.10.3)
- Recall that TCP addresses are IP addresses plus a port number
- These IP address ranges are "non-routable":
 - 10.0.0.0 - 10.255.255.255
 - 172.16.0.0 - 172.31.255.255
 - 192.168.0.0 - 192.168.255.255

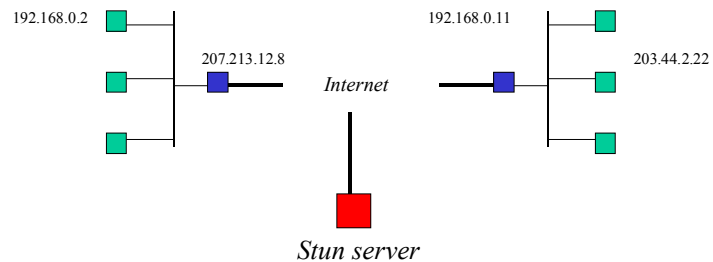


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NAT and Peer-to-Peer (P2P)



- STUN (Simple Traversal of UDP through NATs)
 - Heuristic designed to discover “routable” address (NAT entry) for hosts behind NATs
 - IETF RFC 3489 (<http://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc3489>)

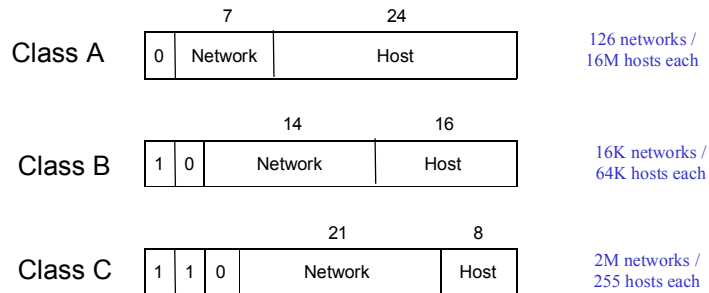
Topic 4: IP Addresses

- Routing burden grows with size of an internetwork
 - Size of routing tables
 - Volume of routing messages
 - Amount of routing computation
- To scale to the size of the Internet, apply:
 - Hierarchical addressing
 - Use of structural hierarchy
 - Route aggregation

IP Addresses: Hierarchy

- Hierarchy is used for routing
 - IP addresses reflect some properties of location in topology
 - Interfaces on the same network share prefix
 - Local delivery in a single network doesn't involve router
 - Routers advertise prefixes to each other
 - Unlike “flat” Ethernet addresses
 - Like hierarchical file names (e.g., `/homes/zahorjan/cse461/09wi/m6.odp`).
 - What are the similarities / differences?
- Hierarchy is used for network management
 - Prefix administratively assigned (IANA or ISP)
 - Addresses globally unique
 - Full host IP assigned locally
 - Distributes burden over users

IPv4 Address Formats



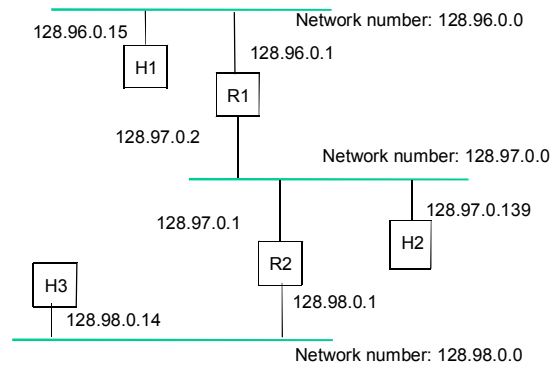
- 32 bits written in “dotted quad” notation, e.g., 18.31.0.135
- Given an IP address, it's easy to determine the network number

IPv6 Address Format

3	5				
001	RegistryID	ProviderID	SubscriberID	SubnetID	InterfaceID

- 128 bits written in 16 bit hexadecimal chunks
- Still hierarchical, just more levels – roughly
 - World owner of this address range (e.g., IANA)
 - Backbone provider
 - ISP
 - End-client organization
 - Interface (host)

IPv4 Network Example



Internet Router Forwarding Routine: Take 1

- With bridging, it used to be “look up destination address to determine next hop”
- Now addresses have network and host portions:
 - **Host:** if destination network is the same as the host network, then deliver locally (without router). Otherwise send to the router
 - **Router:** look up destination network in routing table to find next hop and send to next router. If destination network is directly attached then deliver locally.

Take 2: Subnetting

- Split up one network number into multiple physical networks
- Helps allocation efficiency -- can hand out subnets
- Rest of internet does not see subnet structure
 - subnet is purely internal to network
 - aggregates routing info

Network number	Host number
----------------	-------------

Class B address

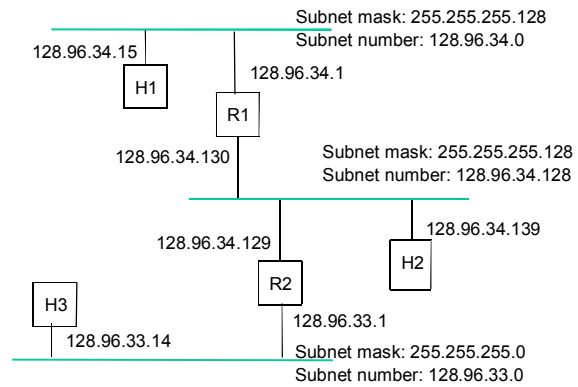
11111111111111111111111111111111	00000000
----------------------------------	----------

Subnet mask (255.255.255.0)

Network number	Subnet ID	Host ID
----------------	-----------	---------

Subnetted address

Subnet Example



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Updated Forwarding Routine

- Used to know network from address (class A, B, C)
- Now need to “search” routing table for right subnet
 - **Host**: easy, just substitute “subnet” for “network”
 - **Router**: search routing table for the subnet that the destination belongs to, and use that to forward as before

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Take 3: CIDR (Supernetting)

- CIDR = Classless Inter-Domain Routing
- Generalize class A, B, C into prefixes of arbitrary length; now must carry prefix length with address
- Aggregate adjacent advertised network routes
 - e.g., ISP has class C addresses 192.4.16 through 192.4.31
 - Really like one larger 20 bit address class ...
 - Advertise as such (network number, prefix length)
 - Reduces size of routing tables
- But IP forwarding is more involved
 - Based on Longest Matching Prefix operation

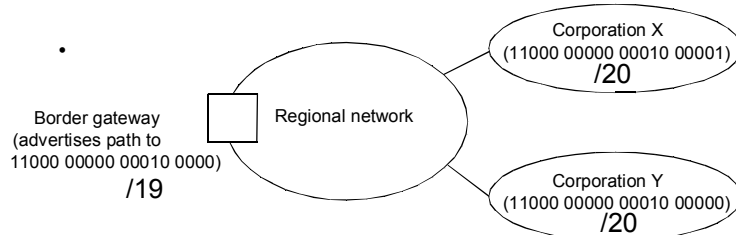
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CIDR Example

- X and Y routes can be aggregated because they form a bigger contiguous range.



- But aggregation isn't always possible
 - can only aggregate power of 2

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IP Forwarding Revisited

- Routing table now contains routes to “prefixes”
 - IP address and length indicating what bits are fixed
- Now need to “search” routing table for longest matching prefix, only at routers
 - Search routing table for the prefix that the destination belongs to, and use that to forward as before
 - There can be multiple matches; take the longest prefix
- This is the IP forwarding routine used at routers.

Key Concepts

- Hierarchical address allocation helps routing scale
 - Technical Issues:
 - Addresses are constrained by topology
 - Advertise and compute routes for networks, not each host
 - Separate internet view of networks from local implementation via subnets
 - Keep host simple and let routers worry about routing
 - Network Administration Issue:
 - Distribute workload of assigning IP addresses to clients
- DHCP provides convenient management of host startup information
- ARP learns the mapping from IP to MAC address
- NAT hides local names behind a single global name